Multielectron effects in the photoelectron momentum distribution of noble-gas atoms driven by visible-to-infrared-frequency laser pulses: A time-dependent density-functional-theory approach

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We present the photoelectron momentum distributions (PMDs) of helium, neon, and argon atoms driven by a linearly polarized, visible (527-nm) or near-infrared (800-nm) laser pulse (20 optical cycles in duration) based on the time-dependent density-functional theory (TDDFT) under the local-density approximation with a self-interaction correction. A set of time-dependent Kohn-Sham equations for all electrons in an atom is numerically solved using the generalized pseudospectral method. An effect of the electron-electron interaction driven by a visible laser field is not recognizable in the helium and neon PMDs except for a reduction of the overall photoelectron yield, but there is a clear difference between the PMDs of an argon atom calculated with the frozen-core approximation and TDDFT, indicating an interference of its M-shell wave functions during the ionization. Furthermore, we find that the PMDs of degenerate p states are well separated in intensity when driven by a near-infrared laser field, so that the single-active-electron approximation can be adopted safely.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Since x-ray free electron lasers around the world, such as LCLS (Linac Coherent Light Source) in the United States, SACLA (SPring-8 Angstrom Compact free-electron Laser) in Japan, and FLASH (Free-Electron Laser in Hamburg) in Germany, became operational around 2010, many groundbreaking experiments have been conducted in the field of angle-resolved photoelectron momentum spectroscopy of gaseous atoms, e.g., the orbital-dependent observation of lithium (Li) excited states [1], the two-color core excitation of gaseous atoms, e.g., the orbital-dependent observation of angle-resolved photoelectron momentum spectroscopy of noble-gas atoms beyond helium (He) [2], and the xenon Rydberg states [3], to name a few. Resolutions of the photoelectron momentum distribution (PMD) in these experiments are unprecedentedly high, which has made detailed comparison with theoretical calculations possible.

There are various methods to calculate the PMD of atoms, such as the R-matrix theory [4,5], the perturbation approach [6], the strong-field approximation [7,8], and the time-dependent Schrödinger equation (TDSE) [9,10]. The PMD of hydrogen atoms has been studied extensively in the past using the TDSE [11–14], but the PMD of many-electron atoms previously studied was limited by the single-active-electron (SAE) approximation [3,15,16]. One notable exception is the calculation of PMD based on the time-dependent density-functional theory (TDDFT) in Ref. [17] using the OCTOPUS code [18], but their method was not tested with real many-electron atoms but with the one-dimensional soft-Coulombic hydrogen atom. The highest-occupied atomic orbitals (HOAOs) of noble-gas atoms beyond helium (He) are in p states, where the electron-electron interaction forces three degenerate orbitals to be perpendicular to each other, and they ionize by a linearly polarized laser field into different angles. Since the orbital-dependent measurements of p-state PMD are already available [1,19], theoretical calculations beyond the SAE approximation are urgently needed. Recently, the multielectron PMDs of noble-gas atoms driven by an extreme ultraviolet (XUV) laser pulse were calculated based on the solution of the two-electron TDSE in the limit of the frozen-core (FC) approximation [20]. Their calculation was in excellent agreement with experimental data.

In this paper, we calculate the PMD of He, Ne, and Ar atoms driven by a linearly polarized visible (527-nm) or near-infrared (800-nm) laser pulse (20 optical cycles in duration) based on TDDFT. TDDFT is a mathematically tractable alternative to the many-electron TDSE and assumes a single-electron Hamiltonian for each electron in an atom. The resulting set of linearly independent Kohn-Sham (KS) equations is numerically solved using the generalized pseudospectral (GPS) method [21]. The KS effective potential of the atom is calculated by using the local-density approximation with a self-interaction correction (LDA-SIC) [22]. This scheme has been successfully used in the past to calculate high-order-harmonic spectra of He, Ne, and Ar [23] atoms, the strong-field ionization of Li and beryllium atoms [24], the resonance energies of He Rydberg states [25], the Cooper minimum in the high-order-harmonic spectra of an Ar atom [26,27], and the transient absorption spectra of a He atom [28]. This paper complements those works with the PMD calculation of He, Ne, and Ar atoms.

With rapid technological advances in high-performance computing, all-electron calculations of atoms in a strong laser field have become as affordable as ever. For the modest-intensity (0.5–1 × 10^{14} \text{W/cm}^2), linearly polarized driving laser we use in this paper, our TDDFT calculation of the PMD based on the GPS method requires a very moderate number of special points (150–250 radial and 31–63 polar angles) and takes only 5–20 h per electron per CPU (central processing unit). While we consider the multiphoton ionization of noble-gas atoms driven by a visible-to-infrared (a few eV) laser pulse in our work, the process considered in Ref. [20] is the one-photon double ionization driven by an XUV (∼100 eV) laser pulse. In general, the calculation of a one-photon, double
ionization requires the approximately PW/cm² driving-laser intensity, which makes our all-electron TDDFT calculation too difficult to converge in a reasonable computation time. Therefore, we restrict our goal in the present paper to the observation of a multielectron interference effect in a moderately intense, low-frequency driving laser field.

This paper is organized as follows. In Sec. II, we describe the numerical methods in our calculations. Section II A introduces the KS Hamiltonian for TDDFT based on the LDA-SIC approximation, and Secs. II B and II C describe the numerical schemes for the initial-value problem and the time evolution, respectively. Results are presented in Sec. III. The PMDs generated by a 527-nm driving laser pulse are discussed first, separately for He (Sec. III A), Ne (Sec. III B), and Ar (Sec. III C) atoms. The PMDs of the Ne and Ar atoms are studied further using an 800-nm laser pulse in Sec. III D. Then, we discuss the applicability of our method to the experiments of Refs. [1,19] in Sec. III E. Section IV summarizes the results. Atomic units (\( e = m_e = \hbar = 1 \)) are used throughout, unless specified otherwise.

II. METHODS

A. Time-dependent density-functional theory

Consider an atom interacting with a strong laser field \( \mathbf{E}(t) \). To describe the dynamics of each electron in the atom, we solve the time-dependent KS equation in the length gauge, given by [29]

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r},t) = \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{r},t)\psi_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r},t),
\]

(1)

where \( i = 1, 2, \ldots, N_\sigma \) ranges over occupied atomic orbitals, \( \sigma \in \{ \uparrow, \downarrow \} \) specifies the electron spin \( \pm \frac{1}{2} \), and

\[
\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{r},t) = \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 - \frac{Z}{r} + v_{KS}^{\sigma}[n_\uparrow,n_\downarrow](\mathbf{r}) \right] + \mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{E}(t).
\]

(2)

The charge number of a nucleus is equal to the total number of electrons, i.e., \( Z = N_\uparrow + N_\downarrow \).

The KS potential \( v_{KS}^{\sigma}[n_\uparrow,n_\downarrow](\mathbf{r}) \) in the Hamiltonian \( \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{r},t) \) is a functional of the electron spin density

\[
n_\sigma(\mathbf{r},t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_\sigma} n_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r},t) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_\sigma} |\psi_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r},t)|^2
\]

(3)

and consists of two parts, such that

\[
v_\sigma^{KS}[n_\uparrow,n_\downarrow](\mathbf{r}) = V_{\text{H}}[n](\mathbf{r}) + v_{\sigma}^{\text{ex}}[n_\uparrow,n_\downarrow](\mathbf{r}).
\]

(4)

The first term in the above equation is the Hartree potential, defined by

\[
V_{\text{H}}[n](\mathbf{r}) = \iiint n(\mathbf{r}',t) \frac{d^3r'}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|},
\]

(5)

which is a functional of total electron density: \( n(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\sigma} n_\sigma(\mathbf{r}) \). The second term, \( v_{\sigma}^{\text{ex}}[n_\uparrow,n_\downarrow](\mathbf{r},t) \), is an exchange-correlation potential and needs to be approximated in practice. We employ the LDA-SIC [22,30]

\[
v_{\sigma}^{\text{ex}}[n_\uparrow,n_\downarrow](\mathbf{r},t) \simeq V_{\text{LDA}}^{\sigma}[n_\sigma](\mathbf{r}) - V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}}(\mathbf{r}),
\]

(6)

where

\[
V_{\text{LDA}}^{\sigma}[n_\sigma](\mathbf{r}) = \left( \frac{6}{\pi} n_\sigma(\mathbf{r}) \right)^{1/3}
\]

(7)

and

\[
V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}}(\mathbf{r}) = V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}}(\mathbf{r}) + \frac{1}{n_\sigma(\mathbf{r})} \sum_{i=1}^{N_\sigma} n_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) v_{i\sigma}(t).
\]

(8)

In the last expression, \( V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}}(\mathbf{r}) \) is the self-interaction potential given by

\[
V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{n_\sigma(\mathbf{r})} \sum_{i=1}^{N_\sigma} n_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) w_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}),
\]

(9)

with

\[
w_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) = V_{\text{H}}[n_i\sigma](\mathbf{r}) - V_{\text{LDA}}^\sigma[n_\sigma](\mathbf{r}).
\]

(10)

Moreover, \( v_{i\sigma}(t) \equiv \langle \mathcal{V}_\sigma^{\text{SI}}(t) - \langle w_{i\sigma}(t) \rangle \rangle \), where

\[
\{ \mathcal{V}_\sigma^{\text{SI}}(t) \} = \iiint V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}}(\mathbf{r}) n_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) d^3r,
\]

(11)

and

\[
\langle w_{i\sigma}(t) \rangle = \iiint w_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) n_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) d^3r.
\]

(12)

The asymptotic condition, where \( V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}} \rightarrow 0 \) as \( r \rightarrow \infty \), requires that \( v_{i\sigma} = 0 \) for the HOAOs [31]. We can calculate \( v_{i\sigma}(t) \) noniteratively as [32]

\[
v_{i\sigma}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_\sigma} \{ A_{\sigma}^{-1}(t) \}^{ij} \left[ \langle \mathcal{V}_\sigma^{\text{SI}}(t) \rangle - \langle w_{j\sigma}(t) \rangle \right],
\]

(13)

where

\[
[A_{\sigma}(t)]^{ij} = \delta_{ij} - \iiint \frac{n_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r},t)n_{j\sigma}(\mathbf{r})}{n_\sigma(\mathbf{r},t)} d^3r
\]

(14)

and

\[
\{ \mathcal{V}_\sigma^{\text{SI}}(t) \} = \iiint V_{\sigma}^{\text{SI}}(\mathbf{r}) n_{j\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) d^3r.
\]

(15)

The LDA-SIC is an exchange-only approximation, so that electrons with opposite spins do not interact. For noble-gas atoms in particular, the number of linearly independent KS equations to be solved is therefore \( Z/2 \). The total density can then be found by multiplying the spin-up (or spin-down) electron density by 2.

B. Initial-value problem

For the stationary states of atoms, we may assume the separable solution of the form

\[
\psi_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{R_{i\sigma}(r)}{r} Y_{\ell m}(\theta, \phi),
\]

(16)

where \( Y_{\ell m}(\theta, \phi) \) are the spherical harmonics,

\[
Y_{\ell m}(\theta, \phi) = \sqrt{\frac{(2\ell + 1)}{4\pi} \frac{(\ell - m)!}{(\ell + m)!}} P_{\ell}^{m}(\cos \theta) e^{im\phi},
\]

(17)

and \( P_{\ell}^{m}(\cos \theta) \) are the associated Legendre polynomials. Each spin orbital \( \psi_{i\sigma}(\mathbf{r}) \) is \((2\ell + 1)\)-fold degenerate for different \( m \)'s. If we take an average over these degenerate states, then electron spin density of an individual atomic orbital is
spherically symmetric and given, using the addition theorem of spherical harmonics, as
\[
\bar{n}_i(r) = \left(\frac{1}{2\ell + 1}\right) \frac{\mathcal{R}^\ell_{i,\sigma}(r)}{r^2} \sum_{m=-\ell}^{\ell} |Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)|^2
\]
where \(\ell_i\) is the angular momentum of \(\psi_{i\sigma}(r)\). Note that \(\ell_i\) is not a summation index but specific to each \(i\)th orbital, and hence, we enclose it in parentheses. In the limit of the central field approximation (18), the Hartree potential (5) reduces to a function of only the radial coordinate, i.e.,
\[
V_{\text{H}}[\bar{\eta}](r,0) = \int \frac{\bar{n}(r')}{4\pi r'^2} dr',
\]
where \(\bar{n}(r) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{\sigma} \bar{n}_i(r,\sigma)\), and \(r_\text{a} \equiv \max(r,r')\). The scaled function \(U(r) \equiv rV_{\text{H}}[\bar{\eta}](r,0)\) satisfies the following Poisson’s equation:
\[
-\frac{d^2}{dr^2}U(r) = 4\pi r \bar{n}(r),
\]
with the boundary conditions
\[
U(0) = 0, \quad U(r_\text{a}) = \int_0^{r_\text{a}} \frac{\bar{n}(r)}{4\pi r^2} dr.
\]
In the same limit, the LDA-SIC potential (6) also reduces to a radial function, such that
\[
V^{\text{LDA}}_\sigma[\bar{\eta}_\sigma](r,0) = -\left(\frac{6}{\pi} \bar{n}_\sigma(r)\right)^{1/3},
\]
and
\[
V^{\text{SIC}}(r,0) = V^{\text{SI}}(r,0) + \frac{1}{\bar{n}_\sigma(r)} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \bar{n}_i(r,\sigma) v_{i\sigma},
\]
where
\[
V^{\text{SI}}(r,0) = \frac{1}{\bar{n}_\sigma(r)} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \bar{n}_i(r,\sigma) w_{i\sigma}(r,0),
\]
\[
w_{i\sigma}(r,0) = V_{\text{H}}[\bar{n}_i\sigma](r,0) - V^{\text{LDA}}_\sigma[\bar{\eta}_\sigma](r,0),
\]
\[
v_{i\sigma} = \sum_{j \neq i} \langle A^{-1}_\sigma \rangle_{ij} \left[\langle V^{\text{SIC}}_{\sigma j} \rangle - \langle w_{i\sigma} \rangle\right].
\]
and
\[
(A_\sigma)_{ij} = \delta_{ij} - \int \frac{\bar{n}_i(r,\sigma) w_{j\sigma}(r,0)}{\bar{n}_\sigma(r)} 4\pi r^2 dr.
\]
Accordingly, the eigenvalue problem for the KS equation (1) becomes diagonal in each \(\ell\), such that
\[
\mathcal{H}_\ell^{\text{KS}}(r) \mathcal{R}_\ell^{\text{KS}}(r) = \varepsilon_\ell \mathcal{R}_\ell^{\text{KS}}(r),
\]
where
\[
\mathcal{H}_\ell^{\text{KS}}(r) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\ell(\ell + 1)}{2r^2} - \frac{Z}{r} + v^{\text{KS}}_\sigma[\bar{\eta}_\sigma](r,0),
\]
and
\[
v^{\text{KS}}_\sigma[\bar{\eta}_\sigma](r,0) = V_{\text{H}}[\bar{\eta}_\sigma](r,0) + V^{\text{LDA}}_\sigma[\bar{\eta}_\sigma](r,0) - V^{\text{SIC}}_\sigma(r,0).
\]

\[
E(t) = E_0(t) \sin(\omega_0 t) \quad \rightarrow \quad r \cdot E(t) = E_0(t) \sin(\omega_0 t) r \cos \theta,
\]
where \(E_0(t)\) is a pulse envelope function, given by
\[
E_0(t) = \sqrt{I_0} \cos^2 \left(\frac{\omega_0 t}{2\eta}\right),
\]
with \(I_0\) and \(n\) being the peak intensity and the number of optical cycles \((T = 2\pi/\omega_0)\) per pulse, respectively.

Because of the azimuthal symmetry in (32), the magnetic quantum number \(m_i\) of the \(i\)th orbital is conserved during the time evolution, so that we can assume a solution of the form
\[
\psi_{i\sigma}(r,t) = \sum_{\ell} \frac{\mathcal{R}_{\ell \sigma}^{(m_i)}(r,t)}{r} Y^{(m_i)}_\ell(\theta, \phi).
\]
It then follows that the electron spin density of each orbital is independent of the azimuthal angle $\phi$ and can be expanded with the Legendre polynomials, such that [35]

$$n_{i\sigma}(r,\theta, t) = \sum_{\ell} n_{i\sigma}^{\ell}(r, t) \sqrt{\frac{2\ell + 1}{4\pi}} P_{\ell}(\cos \theta),$$  

where

$$n_{i\sigma}^{\ell}(r, t) = \sqrt{\frac{2\ell + 1}{4\pi}} \int d\Omega |\psi_{i\sigma}(r, t)|^2 P_{\ell}(\cos \theta).$$  

Similarly, the Hartree potential of each orbital in a linearly polarized field can also be expanded with the Legendre polynomials as

$$V_{H}[n_{i\sigma}](r,\theta, t) = \sum_{\ell} V_{H}^{\ell}[n_{i\sigma}](r, t) \sqrt{\frac{2\ell + 1}{4\pi}} P_{\ell}(\cos \theta),$$

where

$$V_{H}^{\ell}[n_{i\sigma}](r, t) = \sqrt{\frac{2\ell + 1}{4\pi}} \int d\Omega V_{H}[n_{i\sigma}](r,\theta, t) P_{\ell}(\cos \theta).$$

The scaled functions $U_{\ell}(r, t) = r V_{H}^{\ell}[n_{i\sigma}](r, t)$ satisfy the following Poisson’s equation:

$$\frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \frac{\ell (\ell + 1)}{r^2} U_{\ell}(r, t) = 4\pi r n_{i\sigma}^{\ell}(r, t),$$

with the boundary conditions

$$U_{\ell}(0, t) = 0,$$

$$U_{\ell}(r_{\text{max}}, t) = \frac{4\pi}{2\ell + 1} (r_{\text{max}})^{-\ell} \int_{0}^{r_{\text{max}}} n_{i\sigma}^{\ell}(r, t) r^{\ell+2} dr.$$  

The Hartree potential (5) is then found as

$$V_{H}[n](r,\theta, t) = \sum_{\ell} \sum_{\sigma} V_{H}^{\ell}[n_{i\sigma}](r, t).$$

For the time evolution, the Hamiltonian given by Eq. (2) is split into $H_{\text{KS}}^\ell(r) + V(r,\theta, t)$, where the stationary Hamiltonian is given by Eq. (29), and

$$V(r,\theta, t) = V_{H}[n](r,\theta, t) + V_{\text{LDA}}^{\ell}[n_{\sigma}](r,\theta, t) - V_{\text{SCF}}^{\ell}[n_{\sigma}](r,\theta, t) - V_{\text{KS}}^{\ell}[n_{\sigma}](r,\theta) + E_{\sigma}(t) \sin(\omega_{\sigma} t) r \cos \theta.$$  

Then, the wave function (34) is evolved as [29]

$$\psi_{i\sigma}(r, t + \Delta t) \approx e^{-i\mathcal{H}_{\phi}(r)/\Delta t} L^{-1}(\ell) e^{-iV(r,\theta, t + \Delta t)/\Delta t} \times L(\theta) e^{-i\phi(r)/\Delta t} \psi_{i\sigma}(r, t),$$

where $L$ denotes the Legendre transform defined by

$$L[R_{i\sigma}^{(m)}(r,t)](\theta) = \sum_{\ell} a_{\ell}^{(m)}(\theta) R_{i\sigma}^{(m)}(r,t)$$

$$= \sum_{\ell} \sqrt{(2\ell + 1)(\ell - m)!} \frac{P_{\ell}(\cos \theta)}{2(\ell + m)!} R_{i\sigma}^{(m)}(r,t)$$

$$= R_{i\sigma}^{(m)}(r, t).$$  

In the FC approximation, one would neglect the change in the potential that depends on the electron density during the time evolution, so that Eq. (42) reduces to

$$V_{\phi}(r,\theta, t) \simeq E_{\sigma}(t) \sin(\omega_{\sigma} t) r \cos \theta.$$  

In Sec. III, we will discuss the difference in the PMDs calculated with or without the FC approximation.

In each time step, the wave function $\psi_{i\sigma}(r, t)$ is split into inner and outer regions by a smooth masking function, and the PMD is found from the outer-region wave function that is propagated in the momentum space with the Volkov Hamiltonian in the velocity gauge [10,14]. We study the PMD of each individual electron at the end of the time evolution $t = t_f$, given by

$$D_{\sigma}(p, \theta_p) = \left| \tilde{\psi}^{\sigma}_{\text{outer}}(p, t_f) \right|^2,$$

where $\tilde{\psi}^{\sigma}_{\text{outer}}(p, t_f)$ is the Fourier transform of the outer-region wave function, as well as the PMD of all electrons, given by

$$D(p, \theta_p) = \left| \sum_{\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\sigma}} \tilde{\psi}^{\sigma}_{\text{outer}}(p, t_f) \right|^2.$$  

### III. RESULTS

#### A. Helium

The total number of electrons in a He atom is $Z = 2$, and therefore, only one time-dependent KS equation (1) for one of the two electrons needs to be solved, as the other electron evolves exactly the same way. The TDDFT calculation of a He atom is relatively stable, and the time step of $\Delta t = 0.2$ is sufficient to obtain converging results.

Figure 1 shows the PMDs of a He atom (1s$^2$) driven by a 527-nm, linearly polarized laser pulse ($n = 20$ optical cycles) of peak intensity $I_0 = 5 \times 10^{13}$ or $1 \times 10^{14}$ W/cm$^2$. In Fig. 1, a well-known interference pattern caused by the electron rescattering [11,16] intercepts the concentric circles of discrete momenta, given by [4]

$$p_\perp = \sqrt{2(\omega_\perp n_\parallel \omega_\perp - I_p - U_p)},$$

where $I_p$ and $U_p$ are the peak intensity and the conversion efficiency, respectively.
FIG. 2. Above-threshold-ionization (ATI) spectra of a He atom, obtained by integrating the polar angle out of the PMDs in Fig. 1, are shown with solid lines (TDDFT) for (a) $I_0 = 5 \times 10^{13}$ W/cm$^2$ and (b) $I_0 = 1 \times 10^{14}$ W/cm$^2$. Also shown with dotted lines are the spectra from the frozen-core (FC) approximation.

where $s = 1, 2, \ldots$ is the number of above-threshold photons absorbed, $I_p$ is the ionization potential, $U_p = I_p/4\omega_o^2$ is the ponderomotive energy, and $n_o = [I_p/\omega_o] + 1$. The number of angular nodes in each concentric circle increases with the driving-laser intensity. The calculation with the FC approximation given by Eq. (45) yields PMDs similar to those in Fig. 1, except that the overall PMD yield with the FC approximation is greater than the TDDFT calculation by roughly 10%. This is consistent with the previous TDDFT calculations in Refs. [26,29], where it was found that the ionization probability of noble-gas atoms according to TDDFT is smaller than the one based on the FC approximation. To elucidate this point, we integrate the polar angle out of the PMDs with and without the FC approximation and plot the resulting above-threshold-ionization (ATI) spectra in Fig. 2. The first positive photoelectron kinetic energies given by Eq. (48) with an assumption of $I_p = -\epsilon_i$ (the first ionization potential, given in Table I) are 1.96 eV for $I_o = 5 \times 10^{13}$ W/cm$^2$ and 0.66 eV for $I_o = 1 \times 10^{14}$ W/cm$^2$ (and all subsequent spectra are separated by $\omega_o = 2.35$ eV), which agree with the locations of the ATI spectral peaks in Fig. 2.

FIG. 3. Photoelectron-momentum-distribution (PMD) cross section of a Ne atom, driven by the 527-nm, linearly polarized, 20-cycle laser pulse along the $z$ axis with a peak intensity of $I_o = 5 \times 10^{13}$ W/cm$^2$, obtained from (a) the $2s$ state, (b) the $2p_0$ state, (c) the $2p_1$ state, and (d) the sum of all $(1s^22s^22p^6)$ states.

B. Neon

For a Ne atom, $Z/2 = 5$ wave functions are evolved in total, one electron per spin. A time step as small as $\Delta t = 0.05$ is necessary to make the TDDFT calculation stable for $p$-state systems such as Ne or Ar atoms. Figure 3 shows the individual Ne PMDs of $2s$, $2p_0$, and $2p_1$ states in the $L$ shell, as well as the PMD of all $Z = 10$ states, driven by a 527-nm, linearly polarized, 20-cycle laser pulse with a peak intensity of $I_o = 5 \times 10^{13}$ W/cm$^2$. Because of the symmetry in the Hamiltonian, the $2p_{-1}$ state evolves in the same way as the $2p_1$ state. The PMD of the $1s$ state is not shown because its photoelectron density turned out to be negligibly small ($<10^{-18}$) compared to the other states. The PMD yield of the Ne $2s$ state in Fig. 3(a) is the smallest, as expected from its relatively large binding energy $-\epsilon_i$ (see Table I). More strikingly, we find that there is a clear suppression along the $z$ axis in the Ne $2p_1$ PMD in Fig. 3(c), in contrast to the Ne $2p_0$ PMD in Fig. 3(b). This is because the atomic orbital of the $2p_1$ state is aligned perpendicular to the driving-laser polarization with a node at $z = 0$. One can compare the PMD yields of Ne $L$-shell electrons in the ATI spectra in Fig. 4. As expected, the spectral intensity of the $2p_0$ state, whose atomic orbital is parallel to the driving-laser field, is the largest. The first positive photoelectron kinetic energy for the $2p$ state predicted by Eq. (48) is 0.25 eV, which agrees with the ATI peaks of the $2p_0$ and $2p_1$ states in Fig. 4.

It is known that the PMD of the hydrogen atom driven by a linearly polarized laser field has a fourfold symmetry, i.e., $D(r,\theta) = D(r,\pi - \theta) = D(r, - \theta)$ [4]. The He PMDs...
FIG. 4. ATI spectra of a Ne atom, obtained by integrating the polar angle out of the PMDs in Figs. 3(a)–3(c).

in Fig. 1 also exhibit such a fourfold symmetry, and so does the PMD of each individual electron of a Ne atom in Figs. 3(a)–3(c). On the other hand, the fourfold symmetry is broken in the PMD evaluated from the sum of all states in Fig. 3(d), presumably because of the quantum interference among the complex wave functions \( \tilde{\psi}_{v_i\sigma}(p, t_f) \) of different phases. A similar effect is known in the high-order-harmonic spectra of a carbon-dioxide molecule [36].

For an Ar atom, \( Z/2 = 9 \) wave functions are evolved. Figure 5 shows the individual Ar PMDs of 3s, 3p\(_0\), and 3p\(_1\) states in the \( M \) shell, as well as the PMD of all \( Z = 18 \) states. All driving-laser parameters are the same as those in the Ne calculation in the previous section. The PMDs of the inner atomic orbitals in the \( K \) and \( L \) shells are not shown, as the electron density in their PMDs turned out to be negligibly small (<10\(^{-17}\)) compared to the \( M \)-shell electrons.

Similar to the Ne \((2p_1)\) PMD in Fig. 3(c), the Ar \(3p_1\) PMD in Fig. 5(c) is suppressed along the \( z \) axis, whereas the PMDs of 3s and 3p\(_0\) states in Figs. 5(a) and 5(b) are not, reflecting their orbital structures. On the other hand, the intensity of the Ar 3s PMD in Fig. 5(a) is fairly large, in contrast to the Ne 2s PMD in Fig. 3(a). Figure 6 compares the ATI spectra of Ar \(M\)-shell electrons. The intensities of the ATI spectra from degenerate 3p\(_0\) and 3p\(_1\) atomic orbitals are particularly close to one another. The first positive photoelectron kinetic energies given by Eq. (48) are 0.72 eV for the 3s\(^2\) states and 0.23 eV for the 3p\(^6\) states, in good agreement with the location of the first spectral peaks in Fig. 6.

The fourfold symmetry we found in the PMDs of each individual atomic orbital in He and Ne atoms also holds for the Ar PMDs in Figs. 5(a)–5(c), but it breaks in the PMD of all electrons in Fig. 5(d), similar to what occurs in the Ne case in Fig. 3(d). Last, the Ar 3p\(_1\) PMD in Fig. 5(c) shows a suppression of electron density in directions both parallel and perpendicular to the laser polarization, resulting in a four-lobe structure; this is consistent with the recent \( p\)-state measurement of the PMD of krypton atoms during two-photon ionization (13 eV excitation, followed by a 595-nm linearly polarized laser pulse) [37].

In Figs. 7 and 8, we plot the PMDs and the ATI spectra of an Ar atom calculated with the FC approximation given by Eq. (45). All the laser parameters are kept the same as the TDDFT calculation in Figs. 5 and 6. We find that the PMD yield from the 3s state in Fig. 7(a) is negligibly small compared to the one from the 3p\(_0\) or the 3p\(_1\) state, in contrast to the TDDFT results in Fig. 5. A comparison of
FIG. 7. The same as Fig. 5, but calculated with the frozen-core approximation.

ATI spectra in Figs. 6 and 8 shows that the FC approximation does not affect the location of ATI spectral peaks but boosts the $3p_0$-state contribution over the other $M$-shell orbitals ($3s$ and $3p_1$). In view of the electron-electron interaction, inner electrons would ionize more easily after valence electrons ionize, and thus, the enhanced ATI yield from the $3s$ state in the TDDFT calculation relative to the FC approximation makes sense.

Another striking difference between the TDDFT and the FC approximation is in the PMD from the Ar $3p_1$ state. Notice that there are eight angular nodes in the central region of both Figs. 5(c) and 7(c). While the intensity of each peak separated by these nodes is uniform under the FC approximation in Fig. 7(c), it is weaker in the $z$ direction according to the TDDFT in Fig. 5(c). This is reasonable, given that the electrons in the $3s$ and $3p_0$ states ionize along the $z$ axis (in parallel with the laser polarization) most in Figs. 5(a) and 5(b). They should interfere with the electron in the $2p_1$ state and keep it from ionizing in the same direction, but the FC approximation fails to predict such electron-electron interaction.

D. Ionization by infrared lasers

In Secs. III A–III C, atoms are driven by a visible (527-nm) linearly polarized laser pulse. Experimentally, a driving laser with longer wavelengths (typically near to midinfrared) is more commonly used in the momentum spectroscopy [3,15,19]. In this section, we study the PMDs of Ne and Ar atoms driven by a near-infrared (800-nm), linearly polarized, 20-cycle laser pulse with a peak intensity of $1 \times 10^{14}$ W/cm$^2$.

Figure 9 shows the ATI spectra of $L$-shell and $M$-shell electrons in Ne and Ar atoms, respectively. The ATI yields from inner electrons are negligibly small ($<10^{-20}$ for the Ne $1s^2$ states and $<10^{-15}$ for the Ar $1s^22s^22p^6$ states) and are
therefore not shown. We find that the ATI spectral intensities from degenerate $p$ states in Fig. 9 are well separated, and the $m = 0$ state that is parallel to the driving-laser field ($2p_0$ for Ne and $3p_0$ for Ar) yields the most photoelectrons. As a result, it is safe to assume that the SAE approximation is valid in the PMD calculation with an infrared driving laser field, in accordance with recent publications by other groups [3,38]. In Fig. 10, we plot the single-electron PMDs of the $2p_0$ state of Ne and the $3p_0$ state of Ar. They exhibit complex structures due to the electron rescattering, similar to the xenon PMD measured using a midinfrared (24–31 $\mu$m) driving laser pulse in Ref. [3].

E. Discussion

In this section, we discuss the applicability of our current GPS method based on TDDFT to the experiments in Refs. [1,19]. They are two of the earliest measurements of the $p$-state PMDs, resolving the information of different orbitals ($m = 0$ and $\pm 1$). The all-electron calculation of the excited-state Li PMD, which was measured using an XUV laser pulse (85–91 eV) in Ref. [1], is significantly more complicated than the noble-gas atoms we study in this paper because (1) the valence shell of a Li atom is partially filled even in the ground state, which makes electrons with opposite spins evolve differently, and (2) the stationary Hamiltonian for the excited-state of a many-electron atom is different from the ground-state calculation in TDDFT due to the Kohn-Sham potential, which depends on the electron density. Our TDDFT calculation can handle both problems, and our calculation of Li excited states is currently in progress.

There are two reasons why we did not attempt to reproduce the experimental results of Ref. [19]. First, their PMD measurement used a circularly polarized field, whereas our present TDDFT calculation can deal with only a linearly polarized laser field due to the following computational constraints. With a circularly polarized driving-laser field, the spherical-harmonic expansion of the time-dependent electron density involves complex-valued coefficients, which makes the numerical calculation of a Hartree potential in each time step significantly more time-consuming than with a linearly polarized field. Such calculations will be a subject of our future work.

Second, the main result presented in Ref. [19] was an observation of the quantum beating, where a pump field prepares the initial state as a superposition of two fine-structured states ($2P_{1/2}$ and $2P_{3/2}$ of the Ne atom) and a probe field measures the Rabi oscillation of frequency $\gamma = 2\pi/\Delta E$, where $\Delta E$ is the fine-structure splitting of the two states. This effect is independent of the probe-field polarization (and the rest of the laser parameters such as intensity, frequency, and duration) and happens as long as the initial state is prepared as a superposition of two states with different energies. In fact, Ref. [19] demonstrated the Rabi oscillation between the two fine-structure states using a linearly polarized field as well. Furthermore, this type of quantum beating is not restricted to the fine-structure states but can happen between any two nondegenerate eigenstates, as evidenced in Ref. [39], where the quantum beating between various excited states of a He atom was measured. Reference [39] also presents a TDSE calculation in the limit of the SAE approximation, which reproduces the quantum beating in their experiment; in this sense, the quantum beating in Ref. [19] is not a multielectron effect we aimed to study in our present work. That is the second reason why we did not attempt a direct comparison between our calculation and the experimental results in Ref. [19]. A theoretical calculation was given in Ref. [19] based on the rotating-wave approximation for a two-level system, which was sufficient to explain the quantum beating. It would be more desirable, however, to diagonalize the stationary-state Hamiltonian in the $(j,m_j)$ basis rather than the $(\ell,m)$ basis in the GPS method to take the fine structure into account.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we calculated the photoelectron momentum distribution (PMD) of noble-gas atoms (He, Ne, and Ar) driven by a linearly polarized 20-cycle laser pulse with peak intensities $0.5–1 \times 10^{14}$ W/cm$^2$ based on time-dependent density-functional theory (TDDFT). With a visible (527-nm) driving-laser frequency, we find that the PMD yields from outer orbitals according to the TDDFT are comparable in strength, so that they could interfere with each other and break the fourfold symmetry in the PMDs. This is an example of the quantum interference due to different complex phases among the individual wave functions in an atom. There are no experimental data to compare our results with yet, but such symmetry breaking should exist in the PMD of multielectron atoms driven at a visible (400–700-nm) laser frequency. To observe the many-electron interference effect, it is crucial that the spectral intensities of multiple orbitals are comparably strong. With a longer (800 nm) driving-laser frequency, more commonly used in the PMD experiments, we found that the PMDs of degenerate $p$-state orbitals are well separated in their intensities, so that the interference effect is not observable. Moreover, the PMDs of $p$-state electrons with $m = \pm 1$ are suppressed along the $z$ axis, reflecting their orbital orientations and interference with the $m = 0$ electron that mostly ionizes along the $z$ axis. Therefore, when driven by a linearly polarized field at an infrared
frequency, the PMD yield from the outermost electron with \( m = 0 \) dominates over the rest of the electrons, so that one can safely adopt the SAE approximation to calculate the PMD.

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APPENDIX

The Krieger-Li-Iafrate (KLI) approximation [31] is an exchange-only KS potential for the stationary state of a many-electron atom, given by

\[
V^S_{\sigma[n_i, n_j]}(r) \simeq V^S_\sigma(r) + \sum_{i=1}^{N_\sigma} \tilde{n}_i(r) v_{\sigma i}, \tag{A1}
\]

where \( V^S_\sigma \) is the Slater potential defined by

\[
V^S_{\sigma}(r) = \frac{1}{\tilde{n}_\sigma(r)} \sum_{i=1}^{N_\sigma} \tilde{n}_i(r) v_{\sigma i}^{HF}(r), \tag{A2}
\]

with \( v_{\sigma i}^{HF} \) being the single-particle Hartree-Fock exchange potential,

\[
v_{\sigma i}^{HF}(r) = -\frac{1}{R_{j\sigma}(r)} \sum_{j=1}^{N_\sigma} R_{ji\sigma}(r) \left( \frac{\ell_i + \ell_j}{\ell_i \ell_j} \right) \sum_{\ell=\ell_i-\ell_j}^{\ell_i+\ell_j} \binom{\ell_i}{\ell} \binom{\ell_j}{\ell} \binom{2}{\ell} W_{ij}^{\sigma}(r). \tag{A3}
\]

In the above expression, \( R_{j\sigma}(r) \) is the radial function in Eq. (16), \( \binom{\ell_i}{\ell} \binom{\ell_j}{\ell} \) are Wigner 3j coefficients, and

\[
W_{ij}^{\sigma}(r) \equiv \int_{r_\lambda}^{r_{\max}} R_{i\sigma}(r) R_{j\sigma}(r_{\max}) r_{\lambda} dr_{\lambda}, \tag{A4}
\]

with \( r_\lambda = \min(r, r') \) and \( r_{\max} = \max(r, r') \). In practice, \( W_{ij}^{\sigma}(r) \) is obtained by solving the following differential equation:

\[
\left[ -\frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2} \right] Q_{ij}^{\sigma, \ell}(r) = \left( 2\ell + 1 \right) \frac{R_{i\sigma}(r) R_{j\sigma}(r)}{r}, \tag{A5}
\]

where \( Q_{ij}^{\sigma, \ell}(r) \equiv r W_{ij}^{\sigma, \ell}(r) \). The boundary conditions are

\[
Q_{ij}^{\sigma, \ell}(0) = 0, \quad Q_{ij}^{\sigma, \ell}(r_{\max}) = \left[ \delta_{ij} \frac{1}{R_{i\sigma}(r_{\max})} \right]^{\ell_{\max}}_{0} R_{i\sigma}(r) R_{j\sigma}(r) r^\ell dr \quad \text{if } \ell = 0
\]

\[
\text{otherwise.} \quad \tag{A6}
\]

The orbital-dependent constant \( v_{\sigma i} \) in Eq. (A1) is found as

\[
C_{i\sigma} = \left\{ V^{KLI}_{i\sigma} - \left\langle v_{\sigma i}^{HF} \right\rangle \right\} = \sum_{j=1}^{N_\sigma} \left( \mathbf{A}_\sigma^{-1} \right)_{ij} \left[ \left\langle V^S_{\sigma} \right\rangle - \left\langle v_{\sigma j}^{HF} \right\rangle \right], \tag{A7}
\]

where \( \mathbf{A}_\sigma \) is given by Eq. (27).


